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ABSTRACT

This curriculum was compiled to serve as a guide, review, or supplement to the programmed materials currently in use in the Adult Basic Education Program sponsored by the University of Arkansas. The criterion for the materials selected was their ease of adaptability to a job-oriented educational approach. The document is divided into the following sections: (1) Introduction--Basic Reading Instruction for Adults; portions of this section are devoted to Purpose, Adjusting Instructions to Individual Differences, Approaches to Reading, The Dual Role of the Teacher, and Materials; (2) Reading Defined--A Connotative Interpretation; (3) Developmental Reading; there are three major sections in this category--Recognition Pattern (words in isolation, and in context), Recognition Techniques (visual/structural and phonetic analyses), and Comprehension (interpreting meaning and implications, perceiving relationships, evaluation, reading for appreciation, and dictionary usage); (4) Evaluation; and (5) Sequence of Reading Instruction (three stages). (JS)

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A Basic Reading Guide for Adults

COMPILED BY THE STAFF OF THE

SPECIAL EXPERIMENTAL DEMONSTRATION PROJECT IN
ADULT BASIC EDUCATION
DIVISION OF CONTINUING EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS
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A BASIC READING GUIDE

FOR ADULTS

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SPECIAL EXPERIMENTAL DEMONSTRATION PROJECT IN
ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

Division of Continuing Education
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FOREWORD

This curriculum was compiled to serve as a guide, review or supplement to the programmed materials now in use by the teachers in the University of Arkansas sponsored Adult Basic Education Program.

The majority of the curriculums surveyed and used in this guide were developed by the various County School Systems, by Federally funded Adult Education Programs, as well as textbook materials from reading authorities.

Criterion for the materials selected for inclusion in this guide was their ease of adaptability to a job-oriented educational approach.

It is the writer's intent that the teacher, after reading the exercises provided, develop more of her own using the understanding and knowledge she has acquired of her students, their backgrounds, their experiences, and their needs.

The teacher is not expected to present all the material introduced in this curriculum. She should adapt these materials to suit the needs of individuals in the reading classes in whatever manner seems most appropriate.

"I well remember my delight when first
The meaning of a printed sentence burst
Upon me; I had vaguely sensed a link
Between the symbols reproduced in ink
And what was read to me, but had not found,
The kinship of the letters and the sound;
Then suddenly the synthesis was clear,
And all at once I understood that here
Incorporated in these symbols lay
The language I was speaking every day."

William S. Corwin

McKee, Paul, A Program of Instruction for the Elementary School, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1948, p. 44.

I.

Introduction

A. Purpose

B. Adjusting Instruction to Individual Differences

C. Approaches to Reading

D. The Dual Role of the Teacher

E. Materials

INTRODUCTION

A. Purpose

The purpose of this Reading Curriculum is to serve as a guide for the teaching of reading to those who have reached adulthood with deficiency in this area.

B. Adjusting Instruction to Individual Differences

The instructor may find the class is composed of students with little or no formal education--while some will have completed several years of schooling. However, the teacher should not evaluate and place students exclusively on the basis of school years completed. Many factors affect the actual educational achievement of an individual--such as number of years away from school, family and financial circumstances, conditions of health, motivation, intelligence, ad infinitum.

Obviously the student with the greatest deficiency in reading will be the one with little knowledge of the letters of the alphabet and unable to decipher the rudimentary elements of a beginning reader.

In our complex society, it is impossible to define the illiterate as one who cannot read at a first, second, or third grade level. In the past, the functional illiterate tended to be the one with perhaps a fourth grade education.

One may generalize that the adult who will benefit from the Adult Basic Education reading program is the one who has not gained the skills and knowledge

in this area that enable him to engage effectively in activities in his culture or group which require reading as an effective means of communication.

The student attending the ABE reading classes will come from all adult age groups--the 17-20 age youngster who is seeking job training--the adult from 20-50 years old, as well as the group well past 50 years. The teacher in a literacy program will find adults have many problems--family pressures, financial problems, strongly ingrained customs and habits, health problems, the need to hide their deficiencies, an impatient desire to see an immediate, tangible return for their investment in time, group pressure--all these and others.

The adult is not required to attend class and maintaining regular attendance is reportedly a problem. There is some relationship between attendance and how meaningful and useful the students perceive the program to be. Occasionally an employer will offer a small incentive to employees enrolled in classes. However, the problems encountered by the adult may be unsurmountable to such an extent that the student may be absent for extended periods of time. Reasons may include: children to care for, tending aged or ill relatives, seeking employment, the lack of transportation, or the need for spending many hours waiting for welfare medical care. Pressure or penalties should not be placed on the adult who is irregular in attendance. Because of the necessity for accurate reporting, the teacher should keep a record of class attendance, however.

Phenomenal progress of the adult may be noted in the early stages of the reading program. Dramatic gains in reading proficiency may be a result of the adult's beginning to make use of skills learned at an earlier stage. As the student begins to understand unlearned or misunderstood principles from an earlier

educational experience, he may find unused learnings from the past have a way of "falling into place." This early success can be a prime motivational factor for future achievements. However, it can also be a very frustrating recollection as the student begins to progress at a less rapid rate.

Adults are very complex at times. Often they are cautious about letting an instructor know just how much they can do. It may be some time before the instructor can accurately evaluate the needs of the class. A strategy the student may use is to show only a little achievement at a time in order to merit teacher recognition and commendation. It is very difficult to make a truly valid appraisal of the student's initial status.

C. Approaches to the Teaching of Reading

In the early days, reading was usually taught from a single book--often the McGuffey Reader. Teachers today know much more about their students--their needs, their interests and their tastes, as well as knowing much about the reading process.

1. Basal Reading Approach

Concerning basal readers--(The foundation of the basic reading for 90 percent of the elementary classrooms in the United States). The reading text and accompanying pictures are made for the young child and are generally unsuitable for the adult reading program. Therefore, the literacy teacher finds that basal readers are seldom useful.

2. I. T. A. - UNIFON - And Others

Such reading approaches as the Initial Teaching Alphabet, the UNIFON with a sound-letter relationship, Words-in-Color - the Phonovisual Method,

and others may be used. However, transfer to customary reading procedures may present a problem.

3. Programmed Reading

Programmed Reading materials are the ones most readily available at the adult level. Much of the text can be adapted to the adult vocabulary. However, caution should be observed so that the adult is not put on a production-line basis--the more they produce, the more they are given, whether or not the materials are suited to the needs of the individual.

4. Individualized Reading Approach

In this method a teacher will help each adult to develop the maximum of his potentialities at the optimum rate, nurturing his interests and arousing new ones, finding materials that will benefit him most, encouraging him and commending him on his efforts and accomplishments, and motivating the student to set ever higher goals. Idealistically, this is the goal each conscientious teacher will aspire toward. However, it is only good common sense to know that in the interest of economy of time and effort there are occasions when group work is advantageous and even a necessity.

5. An Eclectic Approach to Reading

This approach can be whatever the teacher wants it to be. The teacher should be familiar with what the various approaches have to offer. By examining available research into the area of reading and by knowing her own group needs, the teacher should decide what materials she is desirous of obtaining and how she wishes to use them. For the purpose of this program, it seems apparent that the reading teacher should feel free to use materials, techniques,

and ideas from various sources and to make the necessary adaptations to accommodate the needs of a flexible program.

D. The Dual Role of the Teacher

The instructor in an adult program will be confronted with many problems--often totally unrelated to the subject taught--yet tremendously affective in the ultimate progress of the person involved. The teacher at times will assume many roles such as counselor, confidant, nurse, as well as reading instructor. The teacher will find she must provide services in many areas other than reading instruction. However, the welfare of the individual is tremendously important in the adult's ultimate reading achievement.

Insofar as it is possible, teachers in Adult Basic Education programs should be oriented to the sociological background of the enrollees they are to teach. A realistic understanding on the part of the teachers of the living conditions of their students, their educational and experiental backgrounds, their opportunities for recreation, and their aspirations will be helpful in planning an instructional program geared to meet the needs of adults.

The teacher must know what reading is, the skills and the sequence in which they are to be taught, and how to facilitate transfer in learning. In teaching specific skills, the teacher must not loose sight of the broader objectives of the reading program--comprehension and related areas.

Teachers should endeavor to teach all adults at their own instructional level. It is assumed that some adults will be learning from materials at one level while others in the same class will be reading from materials at another level.

The instructor should endeavor to use materials which are instructional in nature--rather than merely descriptive of skills which adults are expected to

acquire. Teachers need to provide opportunities for adults to practice skills which they have been taught and to apply those skills in a variety of reading situations.

E. Materials

Teachers should understand that basic materials represent a sequence through which adults progress at their own rate and are not skill assignments for each level of instruction.

In providing for individual interests and abilities, a wide variety of reading material should be available--either from local sources such as the library, or from commercial firms.

It is regrettable that books of interest to adults and produced in varying levels of difficulty are extremely scarce. The reading instructor will find it necessary to depend primarily on his own resources and ingenuity in contriving, originating, collecting, preparing, and utilizing instructional materials.

It will be necessary in the selection of commercially prepared materials or in the preparation of teacher-made instructional materials to consider the difficulty of the reading material relative to the learner's ability to understand the concepts as well as the learner's word recognition proficiency. Word recognition skills and specific comprehension skills are taught and re-taught systematically while the student is reading material that is within his range of understanding. An estimate of the number of words requiring careful analysis to such an extent that fluent reading is disrupted should not exceed one in twenty words. A high number of difficult words will force the reader to sounding words without regard to the meaning of what is being read.

Ideally, a large variety of "free" reading materials should be available to pupils. These materials should represent differing interest and reading levels and be available for use by all adults in the class. Materials should be allocated among the various centers in order to provide for an effective use of available materials.

II.

Reading Defined

II. READING DEFINED - A Connotative Interpretation

Dictionaries usually define reading in terms of "perceiving the form and relations of printed or written characters so as to understand their significance."

Reading is one of the assimilative aspects of communication which contributes to numerous facets of learning. Authorities in the area seem to agree that reading is a very complex process. It has been described as "a process, a mode of thinking, a kind of real and vicarious experiencing, an aspect of communication, and a tool subject." This device, if used efficiently, should include all types of thinking, dreaming, reasoning, and problem-solving. It modifies attitudes and behavior because reading is growth taking place in the individual.

Essentially, learning to read involves the development of proficiency in grasping the meanings for which printed or written symbols stand. These meanings may be well known, derived directly from the past experiences of the reader, or they may be new meanings, results of a process of unifying and reorganizing concepts already in one's possession. A person becomes a good reader to the extent that he broadens his repository of meanings and vocabulary and progresses in understanding and interpreting printed materials.

Learning to read involves a process of building a speaking and understanding vocabulary and of recognizing the printed symbols with which these new words are to be associated. The appropriate adaptation of these two elements of vocabulary expansion produces comprehension which is the ultimate purpose of reading.

To be most effective, these two aspects of reading must operate mechanically, immediately, and routinely, so that the major portion of the reader's attention may be devoted to meaning and comprehension. Understanding concepts

and meanings is the most important part of the process; recognizing words--either old or new--is the subordinate. Reading to learn evolves naturally from the kind of learning to read in which comprehension is primary.

Word recognition apart from meaning--or when meaning is vague and ambiguous--results in simple verbalism, the pronunciation and use of words in context without understanding their meanings as compared to the organization and manipulation of meanings in purposeful reading. If the thinking aspect of reading is secondary or absent, true reading is unachievable. Albeit the identification and recognition of words should be systematically taught. This relatively mechanical aspect of reading should be secondary to the development of meaning, usage of words, and comprehension. Identifying and recognizing words should be coordinated with development of concepts.

Certain intrinsic goals are readily identifiable in the adult basic reading program. They are as follows:

1. To provide reading instruction for the adult appropriate to his individual needs.
2. To provide basic materials on subjects considered essential for the new reader to help him improve employment situations; thus ameliorating living conditions for himself and his family.
3. To motivate the student in such a manner that he will persevere until he penetrates the threshold of functional literacy and moves on to expanded horizons.
4. To increase comprehension of, and fluency in, both silent and oral reading while using interesting and useful materials.

5. To provide help for the adult in locating reading materials of appropriate interest and comprehension level.

III.
Developmental Reading

A. Recognition Pattern
   1. Words in Isolation
   2. Words in Context

B. Recognition Techniques
   1. Visual and Structural Analysis
      a. Simple Endings, Prefixes, Suffixes
      b. Compound Words
      c. Change in Root Form
      d. Contractions
      e. Syllabication Generalizations
   2. Phonetic Analysis
      a. Defining "Phonic" Instruction
      b. Vowel and Consonant Sounds
      c. Blends, Digraphs, and Dipthongs
      d. Synthesis (Blending and Accent)
      e. Synopsis of Phonic Instruction

C. Comprehension
   1. Interpreting Meaning
   2. Perceiving Relationships
      a. Following a Sequential Pattern
      b. Statement-Examples-Following Directions
      c. Summarizing
   3. Evaluating
      a. Discriminating between Fact and Fantasy
      b. Making Judgments
   4. Interpreting Implications
      a. Getting the Main Idea
      b. Making Inferences
      c. Forming an Opinion
   5. Reading for Appreciation
   6. Dictionary Usage

III. DEVELOPMENTAL READING

As defined, reading is a process, continuous to the extent that the reader strives toward ever higher goals.

The complexity of the process of reading will vary in adults. It is rather obvious, that individuals reaching adulthood--with accompanying problems in reading--have encountered difficulties along the way--howbeit lack of opportunity, faulty learning experiences, or a myriad of reasons.

Research has shown it is devastating to "push" individuals in the initial stages of learning to read. The enrollees in this program may not have the functional language background to comprehend an overly-analytic method employing abstract symbols. Adults need to have the opportunity and time to "sort things out," to understand what they are doing, and to see the purpose in the operations with which they are confronted.

In any event, students will learn from many procedures. No one method is adequate for all words. The student needs to learn a number of different techniques and how and where to use them.

Fundamental among all the reading skills is the ability to recognize words swiftly and with facility in interpretation.

Most experts in the area of reading recommend a program that will include:

Word Perception Skills

Comprehension Skills

Other Related Skills

Some students may employ any or all of the techniques at any given period in the process of reading.

This curriculum is developed in the following manner:

Recognition Pattern

Recognition Techniques

Comprehension

Other Related Skills

A. Recognition Pattern

1. Words in Isolation
   (Basic Sight Vocabulary)

2. Words in Context

LEARNING TO READ

To learn to read, we climb and climb
A long high mountain trail.
The path is steep and sometimes rough;
Sometimes we reach a broad flat ridge
And pause to look ahead;
Like reading in an easy book
With words that we have read.
The view grows broad as up we climb
But steeper grows the way;
Our steps seem surer and more safe
With skills we use each day.
We scale the cliffs and rise on high
To look down far below
And view the fund of knowledge
That books have helped us know.
We're challenged then to reach the top
And know that we have won
A glimpse of all the kingdoms
That lie beneath the sun.
From up on high we know we have
A vast expansive look
At all the mysteries, science, arts,
That come inside a book.[1]

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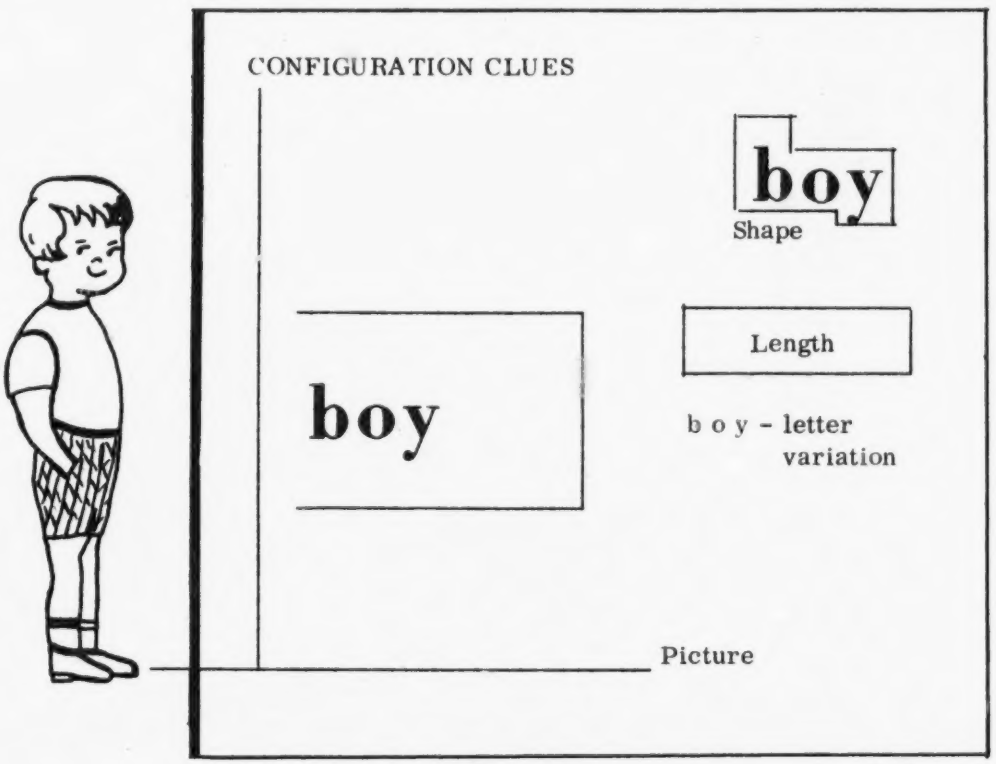
[1] Adapted from- Anderson, Verna Kieckman, Ed. D. Reading and Young Children, The Macmillan Co. New York, 1968. p. 273.

1. Words in Isolation (Basic Sight Vocabulary)



A basic sight vocabulary is usually learned by means of the general configuration of the isolated word. The total pattern of length, height, and letter variation of a word can be associated directly with its meaning without reference to the sound values of the individual letters.

The beginning reader learns some sight words as a result of a peculiarity of a given word or its similarity to another word. Often the beginning letter of a word along with its shape or length provides the needed clue for interpretation.

Sight words are perceived immediately with no need for word analysis. The efficient reader will have so great a storehouse of familiar words that he seldom needs to analyze any words. He automatically increases his

supply of sight words. For the beginning reader, a deliberate effort must be made to provide him with a small supply of sight words. The mastery of a few common words will enable the reader to make some use of contextual clues in attacking unfamiliar words in the early stages of reading. These sight words also serve as examples for the reader to call on when he attempts various forms of word analysis. Repetition in the use of the word will help in the ultimate mastery of the word. Usually a sight vocabulary is taught before letters, sounds with letters, or phonograms.

Recommended basic sight words are found in stage one of this curriculum.

2. Words in Context

In the words of a first grade child, contextual clues are: "Look to see how it begins. Look all across it to see what other word it looks like. Then, read the sentence, and if what you think it is fits in, that's what it is."[2]

The meaning of a new word oftentimes can be obtained from the meaning that would be appropriate (context clues) or from the story as told by the illustrations (picture clues). In order to accomplish this, the adult must comprehend the remainder of the words in the sentence, paragraph or text. Often the beginning reader will guess at unknown words. Adequate techniques for deriving meaning from context must be developed. Awareness and use of contextual techniques are best accomplished by direct teaching and continuous attention. As a reader gains proficiency, he depends more

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[2]Veatch, Jeannette, Reading in the Elementary School, New York: Putnam, 1957, p. 233.

and more frequently on clues in verbal context to recognize an unfamiliar word and to infer its meaning. Experienced readers use contextual aids as a technique for skipping a large number of unimportant words.

Skill in the use of contextual aids increases with practice. The use of completion type material is helpful, especially when the anticipated word is evident: Such as, "Birds can _____(fly, talk, cook)" or "The _____ (kitten, dog, mouse) says mew-mew."

Use of context requires that the reader be thinking about what he is attempting to read:

The man put his _____upon his _____.

In this example, the word supplied in one blank space tends to indicate what word must be used in the other: Pencil - desk, hat - head, shoe - foot.

As outlined by Gray, the ability to infer meaning from context clues involves three things:

a. Reading material must be properly chosen so that both subject matter and vocabulary fit the experience of pupils.

b. Pupils must be at the stage of development where they can attach suitable meanings to whatever new words they encounter.

c. The teacher must be able to push further the kind of training which produces more and more skill."[3]

Wide reading among selections which present an occasional new word is helpful. The number of new words encountered should not exceed one in

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[3]Gray, W. S., "On Their Own In Reading," Rev. Ed., Chicago: Scott Foresman and Company, 1960, p. 108.

one to two hundred running words. The making of picture dictionaries fosters the ability to use picture clues.

Context clues probably provide one of the most important single clues to word recognition. However, context clues are not enough because any one of several quite different words could very well fit the meaning. Several words which are already in the oral vocabulary having similar meanings could be the correct word. Under these circumstances, the use of context alone is seldom adequate because it provides only one aid to recognition.

B.

Recognition Techniques

1. Visual and Structural Analysis
   a. Simple Endings, Prefixes, Suffixes
   b. Compound Words
   c. Change in Root Form
   d. Contractions
   e. Syllabication Generalizations

2. Phonetic Analysis
   a. Defining "Phonic Instruction"
   b. Vowel and Consonant Sounds
   c. Blends, Digraphs, and Dipthongs
   d. Synthesis (Blending and Accent)
   e. Synopsis of Phonic Instruction

THE CHALLENGE OF A BOOK

"I give you nothing if you cannot understand;
There is much that I would give to you
But which you alone must choose to take.
What you do with what you take
No one can predict."[4]

By Verna Anderson

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[4]Anderson, Verna D. "Reading and Young Children," The Macmillan Co., New York, 1968; p. 273.

1. Visual and Structural Analysis

The frameword of a word may be simple or complex depending to a great extent upon its length. The longer the word, the greater the superstructure.

Included in structural analysis are simple endings, prefixes, and suffixes which are separate units of letters that are added to the beginning or the end of root words which result in the formation of new words.

Examples:
Simple endings: looks, looked, and looking
Prefixes: preview, inclose, concede
Suffixes: sadness, handful, agreement

a. Simple Endings

Inability to recognize word structure elements is a very persistent problem with many students. Some students fail to include simple endings in their word vocabulary. The instructor should have many exercises demonstrating the word structure elements: ed, s, ing, and ly.

b. Prefixes

A prefix is a significant syllable or particle used as the first element of a word to change its meaning. For example, if the prefix un is put in front of the word like, the new word unlike is different in meaning from like. If you know the meanings of prefixes, you can tell the meanings of many words. Common prefixes are: ab, ad, be, com, de, dis, en, ex, in, pre, pro, re, sub, un.

c. Suffixes

A suffix is an addition made to the end of a word to change the meaning or to make a new word.

Suffixes with very common endings like ed, ing, en, er, est, y, ly, or, al, ic, ity, y, are usually learned without a great deal of special instruction. Other suffixes like age, ant, ary, ate, cy, ent, fy, ish, some, hood, ure, are relatively common in English. Included here are those suffixes which appear most frequently in the original Thorndike Word Book of 10,000 words. They are ness, ence, ance, ment, tion, sion, ion, ful, less, ive, able, ible, ous, and ious.

d. Compound Words

A compound word is one composed of two or more complete words combined with or without a hyphen. Examples: somewhere, handsome, airport. The process is twofold--that of recognizing compound words composed of known parts and making two words from a composed word. Analysis should not be made on the basis of "find a little word in a big word"--rather "What do you see that you know?"

The teacher should demonstrate how to make compound words by combining two simple words. The student should understand that in a compound word, each word retains its original meaning when presented separately (milk man).

e. Change in Root Form

Change in root form refers to changes that are found in some root forms where affixes have been added: Examples: defense -

defensive, glory - glorious. The English language is a mixture of many languages. The root of a word (or the basic element) denotes the primal idea or significance with it, without prefix, suffix, or formative modification. It is the essential and original as distinguished from the relational or formative part of a word. When we speak of these words, we call them "roots" because we often use only a part--the main part--of such words.

f. Contractions

Contractions are two words abbreviated usually by the omission of medial letters with the substitution of an apostrophe. Examples: isn't, don't.

Adult students seldom experience difficulty learning contractions. A simple explanation . . . a contraction is the shortening of a word or word group by omission of a sound of a letter . . . is usually sufficient when combined with practice drills, both oral and written.

Examples of contractions are:

aren't	you'll	we're	doesn't	wouldn't
hasn't	there's	wasn't	won't	it's
I'm	she's	what's	you've	where's

g. Syllabication Generalizations

SYLLABICATION - Defined

A syllable may be defined as a single or articulated vocal sound. It is also represented by a sound, a word, or part of a word, that is capable of separate and complete enunciation by one voice impulse. A sound ending with a vowel is called an open syllable; one ending with

a consonant is called a closed syllable. Syllabification means dividing words or letters into syllables.

At successive reading levels, the number of syllables in words tends to increase. For example, the beginning reader encounters a, and, the, and many other common one-syllable words more often than he meets airplane, something, experiments, and other words of more than one syllable. For this reason, it becomes possible for the reader to make automatic the application of his phonic skills to one-syllable words and then apply these skills to the syllables of longer words.

When the adult learns his letter (or phonogram) phonics, he gradually begins to apply his skills to the syllables of words. This application of phonics to the syllables, or pronunciation units, of words is done in four steps:

(1) Hearing the number of syllables in common spoken words, as in singing, farmer, many.

(2) Identifying the syllables in written word, as sing, and the ing in singing.

(3) Deciding which syllable is accented, as cross in across and gard in garden.

(4) Applying phonic skills to the syllables of new words, as the ar or er in f (arm) (er).

2. Phonetic Analysis

   a. Defining "phonic" instruction

   b. Vowel and Consonant Sounds

   c. Blends, Digraphs, and Dipthongs

   d. Synthesis (blending and accent)

"The adult you teach will want to know
The why of sew and sow and foe.
Said and maid don't rhyme you'll say
Then how explain say and weigh.
And flood and food, how can it be
That sounds are not like what you see."[5]

[5]Adapted from: Tinker, Miles A. and McCullough, Constance M., Teaching of Elementary Reading; New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1945, p. 156

a. Defining "phonic" instruction

Phonetics and phonics are often confused. Phonetics is the science of speech sounds and is usually used by speech specialists in their work. Phonics is the application of phonetics to the working out of pronunciations while reading.

The instructor will need to evaluate the individual needs of the class and formulate a workable program to include the amount and type of phonics most appropriate for students involved. In this curriculum, it is assumed that an authoritarian imposition of formal phonetic rules by the teacher will be avoided. Generalizations and noted exceptions will provide the few essential and most necessary phonetic rules.

Phonics are not infallible clues to word recognition. However, phonetic analysis can be an invaluable recognition technique. It has proven of great use in teaching adults to read and in creating awareness of the relationship between speech sounds and printed letters.

Phonetic analysis is one of the most intricate of the word recognition skills, because of the complexity of the English language and the variability of pronunciation within it.

Though we have only twenty-six letters in our alphabet, forty-three separate and distinct phonemes, or sound units, have been identified. A single consonant or vowel, may have several sounds, according to its position in the word. It will be a lengthy process to learn when a vowel is "long" or when a consonant is "silent," or how one letter influences the sound of another. The reader may decode

a word by means of a single phonetic clue, when combined with other clues, such as meaning, word form, or context clues.

The teaching of phonics must be flexible in design. Various writers suggest differing sequences in the teaching of phonics. It is quite probable that students very rarely learn the materials in a prescribed order.

The sequence suggested in this curriculum is one way of setting up a logical order:

b. Vowel and Consonant Sounds

Single consonant sounds are the isolated sounds associated with each consonant. Example: b as in ball, robin, crib. The sixteen single consonants which have only one sound are b, d, f, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, t, v, w, y, z. The four single consonants which have two or more sounds are c, g, s, x.

Short and long vowels are two of the sounds that are attributed to the vowels a, e, i, o, and u (sometimes y). Example: (long ā as in cake); (short ă as in bat).

One difficulty about our English language is that the vowel sounds are often different in different words. Each vowel has at least two diverse sounds and some have several more. Each time a vowel has a sound like the name of its letter, it is said to be the "long" sound of the vowel. So, in the word pale, the a has the sound of the a, or the long sound. In the word man, however, the sound a is said to be the short sound. A simple way to show how vowels should be

pronounced is by these two marks:

long sound ā short sound ă

So, we could show the pronunciation of man like this: măn

We could show the pronunciation of pale by writing it this way: pāl

You can show the pronunciation of many words with these marks alone. Every dictionary explains its system of marking vowels somewhere, usually at the bottoms of the pages.

c. Blends, Digraphs, and Dipthongs

Blends are sounds that are associated with a combination of two or more letters. Consonant blends are a combination of two or more consonants, in which separate letter sounds are blended smoothly together. The 30 consonant blends are: bl, br, cl, cr, dr, dw, fl, fr, gl, gr, pl, pr, qu, sc, sk, sl, sm, sn, sp, st, sw, tr, tw, chr, shr, scr, str, and thr.

Digraphs (literally two writings) are also made up of two or more letters, but in this case the letters cannot be heard separately, but combine to have a sound of their own. Examples: ea in lead, sh in fish. Many authorities use the term with vowels or consonants. The term, however, is usually applied to consonants.

The Dipthong is the sound produced by combining two vowels into a single syllable or running together their sounds. It is also the character or characters representing such a double sound. The Dipthongs are: ei, ie, oi, oy, oo, ou, au, aw, ow, ew, ue.

d. Synthesis (blending and accent)

After one has visually separated a word into various parts, then it must be analyzed in its entirety. Essential to efficient word recognition is the rapid synthesis of the parts into the whole word. Many adults have difficulty in reading because of an inability in word synthesis. This ability to synthesize words is frequently called auditory blending. In actual reading situations, however, the word parts are neither thoroughly sounded nor auditorily blended. Infrequently is it necessary for a mature reader to resort to auditory blending. He usually perceives the larger elements within a word visually and then synthesizes it visually without resorting to further analysis. In the word sometime, for example, the efficient reader would see the words some and time in the larger word. He would not pronounce these parts nor would he pronounce the word as a whole, but he would see immediately that it was a compound word made up of two well known words. The able reader would identify the word sometime by visually synthesizing the known parts and would be aware of the meaning of the compound word. This form of visual analysis, perception, and synthesis takes place very rapidly.

C.

Comprehension

1. Interpreting Meaning
2. Perceiving Relationships
   a. Following a Sequential Pattern
   b. Statement - Examples - Following Directions
   c. Summarizing
3. Evaluating
   a. Discriminating between Fact and Fantasy
   b. Making Judgments
4. Interpreting Implications
   a. Getting the Main Idea
   b. Making Inferences
   c. Forming an Opinion
5. Reading for Appreciation
6. Dictionary Usage

C. Comprehension

Comprehension is the main purpose of reading. Without understanding of content, the reader is merely calling words. Reading is based on the foundation of verbal understandings and abilities which the adult has when he learns to read. The process of learning to read is one of the association of printed symbols with their language meaning. Before an adult can understand the meaning of the printed text, he must understand the language patterns which the printed symbols represent.

The process of understanding a concept and of drawing a conclusion is called thinking. The ensuing result is called comprehension. First the reader must have a good understanding of the words he is reading. If the reader must concentrate on identifying words, he will likely sacrifice understanding of the idea.

Certain specific skills which may be helpful in comprehension of the printed page will be discussed in the following pages. Of necessity, there will be some overlapping of skills.

1. Interpreting Meaning

In reading a particular story, some reading should be done to ascertain the central thought of the selection. General details should be noted such as: What type of story is this? What is the setting of the story? What is it primarily about? Is it important? Have you ever read a story similar to this one? What is the time (of year, day, month, in history) of the story? Does the time affect the story in any way? How did the story make you feel? Was it a sad or frightening story? Could you describe this feeling in a few words?

2. Perceiving Relationships

In order to fully comprehend what is being read, a reader must be able to perceive the relationship between the main point and the details, as well as the interrelationships among the details. The ability to summarize or outline depends greatly on the recognition of these interrelationships.

a. Sequential Pattern

The text of the reading material will dictate the type of sequence pattern employed. For instance, in math the text may use patterns of counting by ones, twos, fives, tens, hundreds, etc. In identifying objects- colors, sizes, shapes, etc., may be used. In establishing a sequence in a story the beginning, middle, climax, and ending of the story may be illustrated. Far more complex patterns of sequence may be developed. Some examples are given:

In giving a narrative interpretation of a story, the reader may be able to infer what has happened before or what the outcome will be. The reader may give at least two steps of time sequence:

"I went to the store to buy some milk. On the way I saw a terrible wreck. I went on to the store. On the way back I saw an ambulance driver taking a bleeding man out of the car. Later that day I went down the same street. Glass was still strewn around. Pieces of the car were thrown to the side of the road. Bad skid marks were still on the pavement. You could tell there had been a bad accident."

Certain evaluative interpretations may be made. The reader may give a moral interpretation. "That driver was drunk or he would not

have had an accident on that little street where there are hardly any cars. Or, he may generalize by saying, "All men are careless drivers." Perhaps the reader will draw a conclusion: "I knew he would have an accident because he didn't slow down." "He always was a careless driver." "He was a hazard on the highway." "He was too old to drive anyway." "His eyesight was very bad." "He didn't even read the STOP sign."

Does this story have a lesson or something the author is trying to teach us? What is the moral to the story? Was there anything in this story that you have read in another book? Was the story true in each book? Do you believe this story? Why? Why not? What is the problem in this story? How is it solved?

Still another method used in establishing a sequence is through examining the author's purpose in writing the material. Students should look for the author of the story. Various characteristics of style of specific writers should be noted. The instructor may point out that Hemingway had a distinctive style of writing, unique to Hemingway. Robert Frost and Walt Whitman had their own style of writing. The instructor may wish to point out such known information concerning the author's home, his family, outstanding personality characteristics. The reader should recall books he has read by a particular author. The reader will observe certain patterns of thought by a certain author. The reader should ascertain, if possible, what the author is trying to tell people in his stories. The student may be encouraged to visualize

what he would say to the author if he could converse with him. The reader could hypothesize such personal aspects of the author's life as to whether the writer has children of his own, does he like animals, who his friends are? Are there certain characteristics about this author which are unique to him?

Another phase in establishing a sequence in analyzing a story is through plot progression. Perhaps the instructor will direct the student to tell the story. Possibly he would be asked to relate what happened first, second, etc., in the story. The mentor may find it helpful in teaching sequential skills to ask the reader such questions as: "Does it make any difference if this and this happened before something else?" Reader may be asked: "If you could, would you change the story in any way? Why?" Students will enjoy describing the parts of the story they liked best, also to indicate where the favorite part was located in the story--beginning, middle or end of the selection.

Sequential action is a further study in the organizational structure of stories. As adults learn to define the consecutive action of picture stories and to deduce character's conversations, they proceed to plot, setting, characterization, and action. Students are motivated to form lively sensory conceptions about the action. They are assisted in visualizing beyond the pictured action and answer such questions as: "What do you think will happen next?" The reader will begin to predict outcomes, make appraisals, and increase in ability to understand

cause and effect relationships. Students learn to conclude who is speaking, to understand from the printed selection which person is spoken to, and what the speaker is talking about. The printed text is thus associated with proper ideas and meanings, and correct interpretation develops normally.

b. Statement - Examples - Following Directions

A significant amount of adult reading material is concerned with printed directions. They are given for playing games, erecting model airplanes, cars, trains, recipes for making pastries, operating a motor, performing an experiment, and solving a mathematical problem, interpreting a musical score, etc. Reading to follow directions is a rather tedious, laborious procedure. The relevant items must be perceived in a sequential arrangement. Every detail must be comprehended and retained in its correct arrangement in the sequence. Adults often find it difficult to follow directions. Such labels as: "If everything else fails, read the directions" is an indication of resistance in this area. Some directions are complicated and technical in vocabulary. Difficulty may be alleviated by direct help in this type of reading.

c. Summarizing

In order to make effective use of reference material, it will be necessary for the student to take notes, and synthesize, and condense what he finds out. Pertinent facts and conceptions are summarized. The ability to take useful notes increases with training. Significant paragraphs or sentences may be reproduced verbatim, but the adult

should be encouraged to paraphrase briefly the necessary material. The students may be encouraged to do the following: First, read the entire selection and then re-read it to choose and record the essential points in writer's own words. The important supporting details should also be noted. Write down the reference and sources such as: The name of the author of the selection, the title of the material, name of the book, publisher of book, date of publication, and pages read. An outline should be made including the information read. Material may be summarized by the use of key readings for main ideas.

3. Evaluating

a. Discriminating Between Fact and Fantasy

The responsible citizen should develop competency in interpreting local and national issues. He needs to be able to distinguish between facts and opinions, to recognize conflicting views, and to evaluate propaganda. The enlightened citizen needs to consider all the pertinent information and to make his own decisions as accurately as possible.

The adult reader should be provided with stories of real life situations in which the character's activities are characterized by actual happenings. Then, the student should compare the real life stories to fanciful tales with people performing imaginary feats. Each should be evaluated on their own merit as to interest, enjoyment, educational value, etc. The reader should also make comparisons as to whether stories are real or imaginary.

b. Making Judgments

The most significant interpretative skill is that of evaluating what is read and making inferences based on sound judgment. These inferences provide the reader richer meaning as well as greater appreciation. Only through inferences can characters and scenes come to life or a full awareness of the import of factual data be realized.

4. Interpretation Implications

The most important aspect of the reading experience is the ability to interpret what is read. Each successful evaluation of a selection enables the reader to move more effectively into the next reading venture. The interpretative skills are fundamental to comprehension. As the reader becomes more efficient, the content of what is interpreted progresses from simple stories of daily life to accounts of other times and places, and moves toward increasingly difficult publications. The interpretative skills which are employed at the more advanced levels necessitate similar abilities to those promoted early in the reading experience--giving careful attention to details, using verbal reasoning, visualizing sensory creations, making inferences based on reasoning, seeing relationships.

a. Main Ideas

Main ideas or central themes for selections are the big inner pictures of the emotional experiences inherent in reading.

Students should be encouraged to look for the central thought in sentences, paragraphs, and complete stories. The main idea of the printed text will be interpreted in view of the reader's own ability

to fuse all his experiences into concise interpretations which correlate to a certain extent with that of the author. The student is directed to evaluate the main ideas in a selection and to make fundamental assumptions regarding their validity.

b. Making Inferences

The student should understand what is being implied if not actually said. He should be alert to subtitles. The reader needs to be aware of the "between the lines" meaning of the selection. He should question whether he is being fooled in any way. Some exercises that may be helpful in making inferences are:

(1) Inferring the author's purpose or viewpoint:

(a) Why did the author write the selection?

(b) How did the author feel about the topic?

(c) How did the author want you to feel as you read the selection?

(2) Inferring action or events omitted by the author:

(a) What events did the author leave out when he wrote the selection?

(b) What happened on page . . . which the author left out as he wrote the story?

(3) Inferring moods, motives and character traits:

(a) Find descriptions, conversations, events, and other clues which show what kind of person the main character is. Make a list of the main character's traits.

(b) Choose a character you like in the selection. What has the author done to make you like the character? Choose a character you dislike. What has the author done to make you dislike this character?

(c) Describe the main character as he was in the beginning of the story and at the end. What is the difference? Why was there a change?

(d) Identify the main character and the clues which tell you who he is. (As when the author only implies identity, as in many poems.)

(e) Why did each character behave as he did? Find sentences in the story which support your answer.

(4) Inferring Humor:

(a) Find a joke in the selection and explain what makes it funny.

(b) What was the funniest incident? Why was it funny?

(c) What was funny about what happened on page. . . ?

(d) What was . . . thinking when he . . . ?

c. Forming an Opinion

The reader needs to form an opinion about what he is reading. He should take the facts and ideas presented and assimilate them into his own beliefs and opinions. Training in the formation of an opinion may be accomplished through reading for purposes that necessitate

the reflection upon what one reads. Exercises that may help in the forming of an opinion are as follows:

(1) Find three statements of opinion. Which key words tell you that you are about to read an opinion? Rewrite the opinions in order for them to appear as facts.

(2) Find an example of a superstition; then find an example of a belief based on facts.

(3) What facts does . . . offer to support his theory?

(4) In which part of the newspaper do you find straight facts about important events? (sports stories, news stories) In which parts do you find personal opinions? (editorials, letters, columns by famous newsmen)

(5) Find an opinion and tell how it might be proved or disproved.

(6) In predicting outcomes, what do you think will happen next and why? What will each character do and why?

(7) In making comparisons, read the selection and think of one of your own experiences similar to the one read.

(8) Did you read about another character who had a similar experience?

(9) List what you know about the main character and compare him to another you read about.

(10) What absurdities and exaggerations did you enjoy most?

(11) Find the ideas that do not make sense.

(12) In interpreting implications, what does the author mean by the title? Change the title into a question, then answer the question. What did you think when you read. . . ? What clues told you. . . ?

(13) In making generalizations, what is the most important idea of the selection? What kind of person was. . . ? What kind of people are the. . . ? What did you learn from this selection which can help you in your daily life? What did you learn that will help you understand others? What generalization can you draw from this selection?

(14) In judging literary style, what style of writing does the author use? What did you like about the author's way of writing? What did you dislike? Did you like the story? Why? How does the selection make a reader feel? Did the author stir your thinking? Explain.

5. Reading for Appreciation

Bennett Cerf makes the following comments on the Joys of reading:

"Reading is a pleasure of the mind, which means that it is a little like a sport: your eagerness and knowledge and quickness count for something. The fun of reading is not that something is told you, but that you stretch your mind. Your own imagination works along with the author's, or even goes beyond his. Your experience, compared with his, yields the same or different conclusions, and your ideas develop as you understand his.

Reading is like eating peanuts: once you begin, you tend to go on and on. Every book stands by itself, like a one-family house, but books are like houses in a city. Although they are separate, together they all add up to something; they are connected with each other and with other cities. The same ideas, or related ones, turn up in different places; the human problems that repeat themselves in life repeat themselves in literature, but with different solutions according to different authors who wrote at different times. Books influence each other; they link the past and the present and the future and have their own generations, like families. Wherever you start reading you connect yourself with one of the families of ideas, and, in the long run, you not only find out about the world and the people in it: you find out about yourself, too."[6]

----BENNETT CERF

In books, people find characters to admire, traits to value, goals to seek, solace in identifying with others who have problems, vicarious experiences denied to him in real life, and nourishment for a thirsty curiosity. The degree to which the reader appreciates what he has read is dependent on so many things; such as type of reading, purpose, motivation, time, reading ability, etc. The teacher may be a tremendously important factor in the student's appreciation and ultimate enjoyment of the process of reading.

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[6]Cerf, Bennett, "The Pleasures of Reading," in The Wonderful World of Books, Alfred Stefferud, ed. New York: New World Library of World Literature, Inc., 1952, p. 25.

6. Dictionary Usage

Relatively few adults make proper use of a dictionary. The acquisition of the dictionary habit will provide a wealth of fascinating information.

Development of the dictionary usage is dependent upon a well-organized program of instruction. The adult will not make ready use of the dictionary until he has become skillful in finding a desired word quickly. The reader who demands meaning from everything he reads will find he must turn to the dictionary for enlightenmei.

The beginning reader can make good use of a picture dictionary. After an individual gains sufficient skill in alphabetizing, he can begin to use easy dictionaries. To make efficient use of a standard dictionary, the student must acquire some knowledge of syllabication. Understanding is necessary in what is meant by long and short vowels, and the use of certain diacritical markings.

Dictionaries should be available for classroom use and the student should be encouraged to make use of them. It is desirable that students learn to consult the dictionary when there is a need for it, i.e., to ascertain a correct pronunciation or to clarify the meaning of a word. Training in dictionary usage involves practice in locating words, ascertaining pronunciation, and selecting the correct meaning.

In order to locate words in the dictionary, students must know alphabetical order. Skill in this is gained by having students reorganize a jumbled list of words according to the alphabetical order of the first letters of the words. The student may be asked which letter comes before and

after a certain letter, or what letter comes between two others. A series of index cards with one word on each card can be put in order according to the initial letter of each word.

After the student can locate words alphabetically, attention may be called to the guide words at the top of each word of the dictionary. The student should find the base word in the dictionary first, and then look for the derived word.

To learn correct pronunciation from the dictionary, the student needs to know how to make use of diacritical marks, syllabication, and accent marks. Some training should be provided in the interpretation of diacritical markings. Each dictionary will have a key to its system of markings.

After locating a word, the adult must know how to select from the several meanings listed in the dictionary the one that fits the context from which the word came. This means the reader must have a grasp of the meaning of the rest of the sentence in which the unknown word occurs.

One form of practice is to provide sentences containing unfamiliar words from material the students are reading. The adult looks up the underlined word in the dictionary and chooses from the listed meanings the one must appropriate to the context of the sentence.

Certain cautions concerning dictionary usage may be noted such as: readiness to use an alphabetical arrangement, context clues to meanings, letter sounds, and syllables as parts of words. A dictionary should be used to satisfy the student who habitually demands to know what words mean. The teacher should keep in mind that the use of a dictionary is only one approach to the acquisition of word meanings.

IV.

Evaluation

A. Tests

B. Teacher Evaluation

IV. EVALUATION

Evaluation will be made by means of commercial tests, as well as by informal teacher appraisal. Tests usually diagnose the following skills: silent reading (comprehension), oral reading (accuracy and rate), listening comprehension, word recognition (oral, silent, contextual), phrase reading, phonetic elements, and structural elements.

Specific tests will be left to the discretion of the individual teacher. Several sample names of tests suitable for adult examination are listed:

Adult Basic Learning Examination - Tests designed to measure the level of educational achievement among adults. Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1967.

American School Achievement Tests, Public School Publishing Co., 1958.

Developmental Reading Tests, Lyons & Carnahan, 1956.

California Reading Tests, California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Boulevard, Los Angeles, California.

Diagnostic Reading Tests, Mountain Home, North Carolina.

Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity and Achievement Tests, Harcourt Brace & World, Inc., 750 Third Ave., New York.

Gates Reading Tests, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y..

Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills, Houghton Mifflin Co. Test Department, 110 Tremont Street, Boston, Massachusetts.

Lee-Clark Reading Test, California Test Bureau, 1958.

SRA Achievement Series: Reading, Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago, Illinois.

Wide Range Achievement Test, samples reading, spelling, arithmetic learnings from kindergarten to college, G. L. Story Co., Wilmington, Delaware, 1946.

Informal examination by the teacher may include some of the following ideas:

How he approaches reading tasks

How well he reads at present

How he attacks unfamiliar and difficult words

How he feels about reading

How he responds to help

What his specific difficulties are

What enjoyment or satisfactions he gets from reading

What progress he is making

What he reads voluntarily

How much time he spends in reading

What his reading interests are

Why he reads

How far he can go in reading--what his reading potential is

How quickly he can learn

What home and school conditions are favorable to his reading development

What conditions seem to be causing his reading difficulty

Which of these conditions can be modified

Various samples of diagnostic instruments and reading inventories are given on the following pages:

<u>Terms used in describing reading deficiencies:</u>

A. General Terms:

1. Reads slowly and laboriously

2. Reads inaccurately orally

3. Reads more quickly silently under pressure of time

4. Poor reading habits

5. Inadequate vocabulary

6. Inferior language ability

7. Poor informational background

8. Insufficient practice

9. Wrong conception of reading

10. Improper attitude

11. Physical deficiencies

12. Inferior learning capacity

B. Oral Reading Interpretation (Rate + and -)

1. Proper intonation and cadence _____

2. Correct phrasing _____

3. Correct treatment of punctuation _____

4. Conversational expression for direct quotations _____

5. Good voice modulation _____

6. Reflects appreciation for what is being read _____

7. Reveals comprehension and interpretation _____

8. Appropriate rate _____

C. Codes used for specific errors:

cc-- used context clue; repeated word ( )
ph-- used phonetic clues; used a reversal ( )
o -- omitted the word; added a word after this word ( )
pw-- paused and waited to be helped
p -- paused but knew the word
t -- was told the word
s -- spelled the word and knew it
wr-- used word root and prefixes and/or suffixes
m -- mispronounced the word

DIAGNOSIS OF READING ABILITIES

Code to be used: + or - ---- Satisfactory or Unsatisfactory ---- Other ----

VOCABULARY

Developing Reading Concepts and Vocabulary

Building Concepts through experience

Building Oral Vocabulary

Building Sight Vocabulary

Word-Recognition Skills:

- Configuration Clues
- Contextual Clues

Phonetic Analysis:

- Single Consonant Sounds
- Consonant Blends
- Digraphs
- Short and Long Vowels
- Vowel-Sound Generalizations
- Variant Sounds
- Accent and Diacritical Marks
- Accent Generalizations

Structure Analysis:

- Simple Endings, Prefixes, Suffixes
- Compound Words
- Change in Root Form
- Contractions
- Syllabication Generalizations

Combination of Word-Recognition Clues

COMPREHENSION

Interpreting Meaning

Comprehending Phrase and Sentence Meanings

Understanding Figurative and Idiomatic Language

Getting Main Ideas

Selecting Significant Details

Perceiving Relationships:

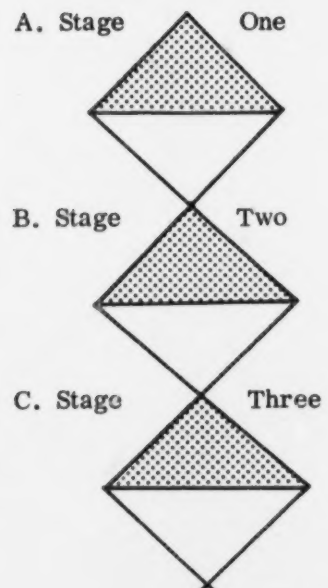
- Sequence
- Statement - Examples
- Facts - Conclusion
- Cause - Effect
- Comparison - Contrast

Evaluating:

- Judging Relevance
- Judging Accuracy and Reasonableness
- Discriminating Between Fact and Fantasy
- Inferring the Author's Purpose or Viewpoint
- Inferring Action or Events omitted by the Author
- Inferring Moods, Motives & Character Traits
- Predicting Outcomes
- Making Comparisons
- Inferring Humor
- Interpreting Implications
- Generalizing
- Judging Literary Style
- Discriminating Between Fact and Opinion
- Developing Interest in Pleasure Reading

V.

Sequence of Reading Instruction



V. SEQUENCE OF READING INSTRUCTION

There will be numerous occasions for reviewing of certain concepts. Individual progress will be the prime factor for consideration of when a specific skill is first introduced.

The reader of this curriculum will note some overlapping of skills to be taught as well as occasional repetition of skills already introduced.

After reviewing much of the reading material available to this Adult Basic Education staff, the following sequence for the teaching of reading is presented for consideration by reading teachers:

A. Stage One is referred to as the elementary or preparatory period of training in which the student acquires the basic attitudes and skills for reading very simple passages.

B. Stage Two is the continuation of the elementary training into the transitional period where rapid progress occurs in learning to read and interpret any material within the range of familiar experience that is expressed in the vocabulary of everyday usage.

C. Stage Three is a developmental period in that the ability is developed to read and interpret effectively more mature types of material needed in meeting daily needs.

Sample - A Directed Reading Lesson

Specific helps for teaching each of the word perception, comprehension, and study skills are arranged sequentially in order of difficulty.

The following steps for presenting a reading lesson are essentially the same as those listed in the teacher's manual of the basal readers. The adult reading teacher may find this lesson plan helpful.

READING LESSON

Developing Readiness for Reading

Developing Concept Backgrounds

Relating the Selection to Adult's Background Experiences

Introducing the New Vocabulary

Using a Variety of Ways in Presenting the New Words

Creating Interest in the Story or Reading Material

Reading the Story

Directed silent reading

- Establishing a purpose for reading
- Discussing the title and illustrations and using these for key questions that give purpose for reading and cause readers to think
- Questioning to develop comprehension if they are thought questions
- Observing the reader and giving help if needed
- Developing meaning and understanding

Guiding oral reading

- Checking comprehension
- Making inferences from facts given
- Classifying objects
- Predicting outcomes
- Reading orally, not in relays, and only after preparation

Rereading with another purpose

- Rereading silently rather than orally
- Varying the purposes for rereading

Building Essential Habits and Skills

- Experiencing exercises in word analysis and reading skills, is a part of each lesson
- Building comprehension skills
- Building word recognition skills

READING LESSON, (Continued)

Follow-up Activities. The follow-up activities may include the following:

Working exercises in workbook
Cutting and mounting pictures
Drawing pictures
Reading a story aloud to another group
Dramatizing a story
Answering questions based on the story

Evaluating

Observing reading habits
Noting growth in use of skills in reading
Noting interest and growth in independent reading
Conferring with the adult
Giving achievement test
Giving supplemental evaluation

A. Stage One

The primary responsibility of the teacher at the beginning stage of reading instruction is to encourage and motivate the individuals in the class to such an extent that the adults involved will persevere until reading brings them enjoyment and rewards. Many adults with reading deficiencies consider reading to be a superior achievement and lack confidence in their own ability to master the art.

Many personal, social, and environmental factors directly affect readiness to learn to read. When appropriate steps are taken to remove handicaps and to provide the necessary preparatory training, many adults who had previously failed to learn to read are able to make rapid progress. The first essential step in the preparatory stage of reading is to help remove handicaps and promote increased readiness on the part of all who need help.

Specific aims of the preparatory stage of reading are to:

1. Promote a compelling interest in learning to read.
2. To develop a sight vocabulary of carefully selected words of high value in meeting the basic reading needs of adults.
3. To develop proficiency in recognizing new or unfamiliar words accurately through use of phonic and structural skills.
4. To promote a clear grasp of meaning of what is read.
5. To learn silent and oral reading skills.

Grouping of Students - The teacher should employ the fundamental principles of individualized instruction as much as possible. However, the literacy training of adults usually must be accomplished primarily in groups. Group instruction can help in bringing students together in social situations and relating

the needs of each to the aspirations of the class as a whole. Students are influenced by the enthusiasm of others. Those who learn more slowly benefit from the insights and responses of those who learn rapidly.

The preparatory stage of reading is the point at which the basic mechanics are taught such as directional proficiency, elementary word-attack and comprehension skills. In teaching reading, the primary difficulty is helping the student associate the written word or symbol with the spoken word. Adults usually know the meanings of words and use them in speaking even though they have never associated the familiar word with its written symbol.

Reading instruction should be made pleasurable and profitable. Adults need to be helped to see the purpose in the various reading activities. The more adept the reader becomes, the more he will enjoy reading. A reasonable amount of drill, some word games, some exercises, some explanations, and some analysis need not be boring or frustrating to adults if they are helped to see that the purpose is to facilitate their ability to read.

Instruction at this level includes:

1. Words in Isolation (Basic Sight Vocabulary)
2. Contextual Clues
3. Structural Analysis
4. Phonetic Analysis
5. Comprehension Skills

1. Words in Isolation

Basic Sight Vocabulary - A basic sight recognition vocabulary is developed through the utilization by the teacher and student of the language experience approach. In order to develop the student's oral language, he is encouraged to exchange verbal communication with the teacher and other members of the class. A basic sight vocabulary is formulated by the utilization of the student's verbal experiences.

A measure of sight vocabulary can be made with the Dolch List. These 220 words are designed for rapid exposure to the pupil to develop instantaneous recognition of the commonly recurring words, excluding nouns, which make up a substantial percentage of reading matter at any level.

Of course this is not the way to learn to read. It is drill. It is calling off isolated words out of context. It is a mechanical device which must be used sensibly. Since these words are so common, they must become sight words sooner or later. Adults have used these very words thousands of times in rich contextual backgrounds. If they have not learned to recognize them in reading, they must learn them in some way. Drill periods of this type should be short and may well be continued until immediate recognition is demonstrated.

Another group of words which may be used to enlarge sight vocabulary contains the 95 nouns identified by Dolch as being among the most frequently used in beginning reading texts.

The Dolch Basic Sight Vocabulary of 220 Service Words[7]

a	could	had	may	said	under
about	cut	has	me	saw	up
after		have	much	say	upon
again	did	he	must	see	us
all	do	help	my	seven	use
always	does	her	myself	shall	
am	done	here		she	very
an	don't	him	never	show	
and	down	his	new	sing	walk
any	draw	hold	no	sit	want
are	drink	hot	not	six	warm
around		how	now	sleep	was
as	eat	hurt		small	wash
ask	eight		of	so	we
at	every	I	off	some	well
ate		if	old	soon	went
away	fall	in	on	start	were
	far	into	once	stop	what
be	fast	is	one		when
because	find	it	only	take	where
been	first	its	open	tell	which
before	five		or	ten	white
best	fly	jump	our	thank	who
better	for	just	out	that	why
big	found		over	the	will
black	four	keep	own	their	wish
blue	from	kind		them	with
both	full	know	pick	then	work
bring	funny		play	there	would
brown		laugh	please	these	write
but	gave	let	pretty	they	
buy	get	light	pull	think	yellow
by	give	like	put	this	yes
	go	little		those	you
call	goes	live	ran	three	your
came	going	long	read	to	
can	good	look	red	today	
carry	got		ride	together	
clean	green	made	right	too	
cold	grow	make	round	try	
come		many	run	two	

[7]"Improving Reading Instruction," Garrard Press, Champaign, Ill., Donald B. Durrell.

The Dolch List of Ninety-five Common Nouns[8]

apple	dog	horse	Santa Claus
	doll	house	school
baby	door		seed
back	duck	kitty	sheep
ball			shoe
bear	egg	leg	sister
bed	eye	letter	snow
bell			song
bird	farm	man	squirrel
birthday	farmer	men	stock
boat	father	milk	street
box	feet	money	sun
boy	fire	morning	
bread	fish	mother	table
brother	floor		thing
	flower	name	time
cake		nest	top
car	game	night	toy
cat	garden		tree
chair	girl	paper	
chicken	goodbye	party	watch
children	grass	picture	water
Christmas	ground	pig	way
coat			wind
corn	hand	rabbit	window
cow	head	rain	wood
	hill	ring	
day	home	robin	

[8]"Improving Reading Instruction," Donald B. Durrell, World Book Company

Configuration Clues - In teaching letters, show variation in length, location of ascending and descending lines. Encourage the student to find individual differences within a word which will aid him in distinguishing it from other words. Exercises like the following may be helpful:

This is b	This is p
b is on the line	p is down below the line
b is tall like a building	p is long on the bottom
b looks to the right.	p looks to the right.
This is d	This is t
d is on the line	t is on the line
d looks to the left.	t has a little hat.
This is m	This is n
m is on the line	n is on the line
m has two little hills.	n has one little hill.

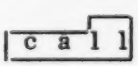
After these letters have been studied, the following riddles are given:

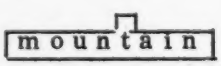
Who am I?	Who am I?
I am tall like a building	I am on the line
I look to the right	I have a little hat
Who am I?	Who am I?

To help identification of lower and upper case letters, illustrations of the same object in various sizes.

I am little b	I am big B
I am little	I am big.
My name is b	My name is capital B
My sound is --.	My sound is --.

Look at words - Note the length, tall and short letters, ones that go below the line, and such. A box can be built around the word to note its shape as well as similar or dissimilar parts.





The teacher should be aware of common word perception errors:

"place for palace" - substitution of letters

"very for every" - substitution of letters

"was for saw" - reversals

"on for no" - reversals

"Left for felt" - reversals

"tired for tried" - reversals

"b, d, p, q" - confusion

"dig for big" - confusion

"pack for quack" - confusion

"that for what" - confusion

"swed for sled" - confusion

"in for a" - confusion

"the for an" - confusion

"was for has" - confusion beginning letters

"ran for can" - confusion beginning letters

"get for got" - confusion middle letters

"big for bed" - confusion middle letter

"stick for stone" - similarity in appearance

"hand for band" - similarity in appearance

"wants for want" - addition of letters

"walk for walked" - confusion of letters

"faster for fastest"- confusion of letters

2. Words in Context

Contextual clues should be taught from the beginning of the reading experience. Contextual clues like the following may be used:

See the _____(dog, cat)

There are primarily three methods used to provide beginning students with practice in using context to ascertain the meaning of a word:

a. By stimulating the student to read on his own much material which presents an occasional word that is strange in meaning and that is accompanied by helpful parts explaining the needed meaning.

b. By providing opportunities for the adult to use the skill in connection with reading he is expected to do in other areas such as Math, English, etc.

c. By providing special assignments which give practice in using the clue, such as workbook exercises.

The teacher must remember, however, that the situation in which a strange printed word can be unlocked by using context alone is rare, that as a rule any one of two or more words makes sense in a given context, that context is of no help in unlocking proper names, that occasionally context is too weak to provide any clue to a strange word; and that context cannot be used in unlocking a strange word when that word stands alone.

3. Structural Analysis

In teaching the structural aspect of words at this time, the instructor will find it necessary to help the student become aware of parts of words they already know. For example:

By use of a plural s and es and possessive 's forms without adding an extra syllable. boats, uncles, girls

By use of endings s and es adding an extra syllable.

pieces, watches

By use of verb endings s, d, ed, ing - runs, related,

noted, digging

Exercises appropriate for Stage One in structural analysis follow:

Suggestions for making new words by adding s, ing, ed, and er to known words:

play	plays	jump	jumps
	playing		jumping
	played		jumped
	player		jumper

Oral discussion.... How can I change a word to make it mean more than one? How can I change a word to mean it has already happened. Use flash or word cards of now familiar sight words. Discuss ways words can be changed.

WORD ENDINGS

Make new words by adding s, ed, ing to the base words.

call_____ call_____ call_____

help	jump	look	pick	play	pull	start
thank	walk	want	word	add	burn	mark
farm	milk					

Exercises to teach variant endings:

Draw a line under the right word:

The kitten _____(drink - drinks) her milk.

Now she _____ (wanted - wants) to run away.

The girls _____ (play - played) dolls.

He _____ (wished - wishing) to go.

Let's go in _____(swim - swimming).

There are certain drill devices that are used to increase the disabled reader's knowledge of word parts. Such drill devices should be used sparingly and when used, the words drilled upon should be read in context so that the elements learned in the drill situation have a reasonable chance of being transferred into the reading situation.

The teacher may wish to construct from oak tag a word wheel similar to the following:

Give students mimeographed sheets of root words. Have students make as many other words from these as possible. This can also be used as a chalk board activity. It is also an excellent "filler" for the teacher who may find she has a few minutes of extra time before the end of class. She may write a root word on the board and ask the class to respond orally.

4. Phonetic Analysis

The Alphabet - The alphabet will be taught in its entirety in the early part of Stage One.

Initial Consonant Sounds - The suggestion is made that initial consonant sounds should be taught first because consonants are more consistent than vowels. Inevitably, short vowel sounds will be taught incidentally from the beginning.

Each letter sound combination should remain consistent until the student is absolutely sure of it.

Consonants are introduced: l, p, h, b, d, r, w, j, n, s, g, y (initial)

Also - c = (k) cat

s = (z) is

x = (ks) ax

o = /a/ ox

Short Vowel Sounds: a - e - i - o - u - (y)

Short vowel sounds are taught by use of:

completion

pictures

matching

association

Exercises to teach vowel sounds:

The vowels a, e, i, o, u say their names in many words. This is their long sound. Write the vowel that is long after each word.

age_____ like _____ alone_____ bite_____

dine_____ cave_____ home_____ white_____

vase_____ use_____ rope_____ mane_____

Call attention to the fact that each word has one consonant between the vowel and the final e: that usually makes the first vowel have a long sound. Some exceptions may be given as:

give some love live

whose where were come

Write the vowel that is long after each word.

peach_____ plains_____

reach_____ tease_____

snail_____ road_____

Call attention to the fact that many times when two vowels come together the first vowel takes the long sound and the second vowel is silent. Some exceptions may be given as:

bread break chief heavy

great head house piece

poem piano moon

Put in the right word. It must have a short vowel.

The boy ran after the _____.

Other exercises using context clues can be used because it is only by means of context clues that the adult can tell whether a vowel is long or short in an unknown word.

EXERCISES FOR AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION

This list of words may be used by the teacher to aid students in the development of auditory discrimination. Word cards, suitable chalkboard exercises and simple contextual materials should follow to develop visual discrimination abilities:

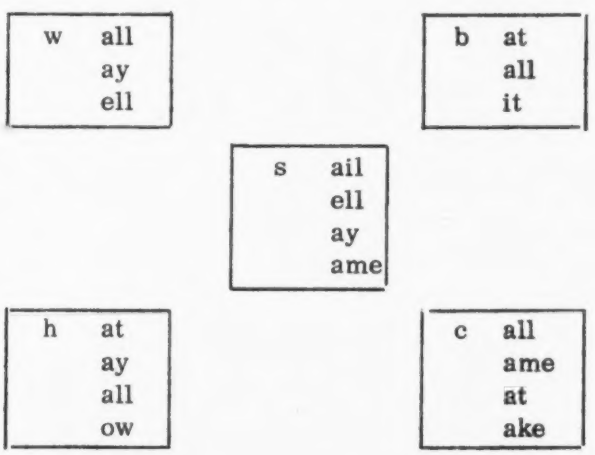
B	bell	ball	bat	belt	bonnet	butter	boat	
C	cat	comb	cap	cup	cake	can	card	
D	duck	desk	deer	dish	door	doll	dad	dill
F	for	feet	fix	feed	four	five	fork	food
G	get	got	give	good	gate	girl	game	goose
H	house	hoe	heel	hill	horse	home	hat	hen
J	jet	just	Jack	jam	jerk	judge	juice	Jane
K	kite	kiss	kick	king	keg	kitten	keep	kale
L	ladder	lawn	let	lamp	lion	lake	leg	leaf
N	nail	nuts	no	nine	next	need	night	no
R	rabbit	rag	rooster	rope	ring	roof	raise	
S	seat	soda	seven	Saturday	soup	salt	soft	
V	very	vacation	violet	veto	visit	voice	vogue	
W	wing	walk	wave	wipe	wall	watch	wash	water
Y	yes	yard	year	yellow	young	yam	yet	yell

EXERCISES FOR AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION - FINAL SOUNDS

D	good	said	spend	kind	cloud	bird	hand	
G	bag	rug	bug	beg	rag	flag	egg	peg
L	nail	curl	pearl	kill	nickel	pool	squirrel	
M	zoom	dorm	gum	germ	skim	slam	sum	arm
N	corn	can	worn	van	soon	ten	pain	horn
P	soap	soup	stamp	lip	sleep	snap	jump	
R	war	fear	razor	chair	rooster	never	paper	
S	grass	kiss	guess	gas	pass	cross	class	
T	feet	belt	point	visit	meat	night	suit	
X	fix	fox	box	ox	six	ax	mix	wax tax

EXERCISES FOR NOTING LIKENESSES IN BEGINNINGS OF WORDS

The teacher draws five squares on the blackboard. In the corner of each is a consonant, and beside each a list of phonograms. The students are asked to give the initial sound and form the words.



The teacher lists words on the blackboard and students put a circle around the words that begin with the same initial sound.

5. Comprehension Skills

Comprehension skills to be taught during Stage One are primarily:

a. Observing purposes for reading

(1) Reading to find out what happens in a story.

(2) Finding certain facts about specific characters.

(3) Reading for information.

(4) Reading for enjoyment.

b. Locating Information

(1) Look at the pictures to find out certain facts.

(2) See if the student can tell by the title what the selection is about.

(3) Have the pupils refer to the Table of Contents to locate the page number of a particular story.

(4) Students should be provided with a picture dictionary. Notation should be made of alphabetical arrangement of dictionary, definition of words, etc.

c. Evaluation

(1) The teacher will ask the students whether the story is true or make-believe, what is important in the story, and what is irrelevant.

d. Interpretation

(1) Group discussion of story as to what adults got out of the story--the main idea of selection, motives, values, etc.

e. Organizing what is read

The beginning reader needs a great deal of experience in following directions.

Exercises should be provided for classifying pictures, words, sentences, ideas, etc.

B. Stage Two

Stage Two is a continuation of skills introduced at the previous level. An effort should be made by the teacher to awaken in the adults a lasting interest in reading.

Students should continue to build a sight vocabulary of carefully selected words of intrinsic value in meeting the reading needs of adults. Mastery of word attack and word analysis skills should be accomplished along with alphabetizing and specific locational skills.

At this time students become more critical readers through making judgments, drawing conclusions, and other comprehension skills.

Readers become more critical and learn to select individual reading material for appropriate ability and pleasure.

The amount of time needed to achieve these goals will vary according to the individual needs of the group. In general, some twenty-five to forty class periods of an hour each are required.

Further structural, phonetic, and comprehension aids are developed in the following pages.

1. Structural Analysis

Inability to recognize word structure elements is a very persistent problem with many students.

Through guided reading activities and practice, students may be aided in the visual and structural skills. At this level, attention should be directed toward the following.

a. Prefixes

b. Varian Endings

c. Syllabification

d. Compound Words and Noting Familiar Parts of Unfamiliar Words

e. Contractions

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a. PREFIXES: re, un, dis, de, ex, en, in, im, com, con, pre, pro. The student should also understand the meaning of the prefix.

PREFIXES HELP UNLOCK WORDS[9]

Cut off the prefix, then look at the root word

Prefix	Meaning	Example	Prefix	Meaning	Example
re	back	repay	in	in	inlaid
	again	recount		not	insane
un	not	unhappy			
	opposite	unlock	im	in	imprint
dis	opposite	dislike		not	impure
de	from	dethrone	com	with	combat
	down	depress		together	compress
	away	detour	con	with	contest
ex	from	export		together	connect
en	in	enclose	pre	before	prefix
	into	endanger	pro	for	pronoun
	make	enable		onward	promote

[9]Source: Webster Word Analysis Chart

b. VARIANT ENDINGS

SINGULAR AND PLURAL WORDS

All of our words that name things are used in two forms--the singular and plural. Some general rules to become acquainted with are as follows:

Many naming words form their plurals by adding s to the singular word: Examples: girl - girls; book - books; pan - pans

Most words that end in s, sh, ch, x, and z form their plurals by adding es to the singular word.
Examples: box - boxes; bush - bushes

Naming words that end in y and have a, e, i, o, or u before the y form their plurals by adding s to the singular word.

Naming words that end in y and that have any letter except a, e, i, o, or u before the y form their plurals by changing the y to i and adding es.
Examples: penny - pennies; city - cities; body - bodies

Naming words that end in o and have a, e, i, o, or u before the o form plurals by adding es to the singular words.

Naming words that end in o and have any letter except a, e, i, o, or u before the o form plurals by adding es to the singular word.
Examples: potato - potatoes; auto - autos; silo - silos

Almost all naming words that end in f or fe form their plurals by adding s to the singular word.
Examples: staff - staffs; chief - chiefs; clef - clefs;
strife - strifes

There are fourteen words in which the f or the fe is changed to v before adding es to form the plurals.
Example: beef - beeves
beef - calf - elf - half - knife - leaf - life - loaf - self - sheaf - shelf - thief - wife - wolf

Some naming words form their plurals by a change in the spelling of the word. Examples: mouse - mice;
child - children; man - men

The singular and plural forms of some words are the same: Examples: sheep - sheep; deer - deer; moose - moose; elk - elk

c. SYLLABIFICATION

The student may be given the understanding that a syllable is usually defined as a vowel or a group of letters containing a vowel sound that form a pronounceable unit. The vowel sound may consist of two vowels making only a single sound. Listening experiences must precede any mention of syllables and phonic instruction should precede this type of word analysis.

The following rules for syllabification may be taught during Stage Two:

(1) Look for prefixes and suffixes as they are recognizable syllables.

(2) Listen for the various audible syllables in a word.

(3) A word is usually divided into syllables between double consonants or between two separately sounded consonants (en ter tain) (com mand). However, when the root word ends in a double consonant, it is usually divided after the last consonant when a suffix has been added. (Spell ing) (roll ing) (call ing)

In teaching syllabification at this stage, adults should be able to pronounce new words through applying the rules that might be relevant, use correct spelling, and break words at the end of a line or writing in accordance with syllabic principles.

d. COMPOUND WORDS and Familiar Parts of Unfamiliar Words

Explain to the students that in reading, sometimes an unfamiliar word can be figured out if one looks to see if he can find familiar words in the unknown word. (Example: cat and log appear in the word catalog.) Have students practice this skill by looking for words which contain smaller words they recognize and figuring out the pronunciation of the word.

e. CONTRACTIONS

The teacher should explain that a contraction is a shortened form of two words. The words are combined and made into one word by leaving out some of the letters. When one or more letters are left out, an apostrophe (') is put in the place of the letter or letters.

Exercises like the following may be helpful:

Make contractions or groups of words of the following italicized words:

cannot - can't	I am - I'm
could not - couldn't	I had - I'd
do not - don't	I will - I'll
does not - doesn't	it is - it's
has not - hasn't	let us - let's
had not - hadn't	we have - we've
have not - haven't	we shall - we'll
he is - he's	were not - weren't
he will - he'll	will not - won't
she is - she's	was not - wasn't
should not - shouldn't	they are - they're
that is - that's	they have - they've
there is - there's	you are - you're
we are - we're	you have - you've

Note - Who's may be one of the first contractions encountered in reading. The teacher should explain that sometimes we shorten it and say who's so that when we use the little mark that is called an apostrophe to indicate that we have left out some letters. Who's can mean who is.

2. Phonetic Analysis

Since the teaching of phonics is considered as one of the multiple approaches to be used in identifying words, the recognition of phonetic aids should be a continuous skill to be mastered throughout Stage Two.

Usually the reader can identify enough sounds in a word to be able to fit the vowel sounds in automatically. Letter-by-letter analysis of every word can be a hindrance rather than an aid in reading. Most reading authorities seem to agree the major emphasis should be placed on consonant sounds as clues for reading.

The following pattern may be helpful:

Review the 16 single consonants which have only one sound - b, d, f, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, t, v, w, y, z

Identify the four single consonants which have two or more sounds - c, g, s, x.

Identify the 30 consonant blends - bl, br, cl, cr, dr, dw, fl, fr, gl, gr, pl, pr, qu, sc, sk, sl, sm, sn, sp, st, sw, tr, tw, chr, shr, scr, str, and thr.

Identify the 6 consonant digraphs with only one speech sound - ch, gh, ph, qu, ng, nk.

Identify the vowels followed by r - a in star; e in her; ir in stir; o in for; u in blur; y in syrup.

Identify the vowels followed by d, l, and w - a followed by l or w in awe; al in all.

Identify equivalent vowel digraphs - ai, ay; ea, ei; ia, oe

Identify vowel blends or dipthongs with one sound oi - oy as in boil - boy; ue - ew as in blue - few.

Recognize vowel blends with two or more sounds - ow in cow and ou in bough.

Exercises in teaching Phonics:

The seventeen consonant blends Durrell has indicated as important are as follows: sh, ch, tr, fr, pl, gr, cl, st, wh, th, fl, sp, sw, sm, tw.

Durrell suggests a word wheel device to give attention to the blends as an excellent tool for remedial teaching. The word wheel enables a student to become thoroughly familiar with the seventeen beginning blends and the words which are selected to illustrate the blends give the student an opportunity to apply his sound blending attack.

REVIEW FINAL CONSONANTS

Mark the final consonant:

cut	fan	bird	air	him
dress	well	log	mob	half
talk	hop	ax	buzz	chill
flap	stab	box	plan	fuzz
calf	tar	ham	class	wall

SUGGESTIONS FOR ACTIVITIES INVOLVING VOWEL SOUNDS

Underline the words containing the sound of e as in he

he	me	we	see	seed

Underline the words containing the sound of i as in it

is	his	him	hit	sit

Underline the words containing the sound of e as in end

men	hen	pen	ten	tent

Underline the words containing the sound of a as in care

rare	fare	bare	dare	share

Underline the words containing the sound of a as in at

hat	cat	sat	rat	fat

Underline the words containing the sound of a as in ask

grass	class	pass	fast	past

Underline the words containing the sound of u as in up

cup	cut	but	hut	huff

Underline the words containing the sound of a as in about

aloud	sofa	agree	idea	banana

Underline the words containing the sound of e as in under

summer	winter	supper	sister	better

GAME - APARTMENT BUILDING

The teacher may wish to teach word families such as ate, ill, ail, etc., by means of games. She may construct an apartment building with many windows in the following manner.

Blends - Complete the words that make the sentence correct:

gr pl pr sk sl

The grass is pretty and __een.

The stars twinkle in the __y.

Be careful or you will __ip in the ice.

The purple __apes are on the vine.

We put the cat's food on an old __ate.

sw tr sm sn sp st

You can do it if you __y.

His shoes are too __all.

The pretty white __owflakes fell softly to the ground.

You can __ell the flowers.

Did you __ill the water on the floor?

Can you tell me how to __ell your name?

Nearly everyone likes to __im in the ocean.

3. Comprehension

a. Exercises for Reading to Follow Instructions

On a mimeographed sheet of paper in 1-2-3 form, list instructions for students to follow: Example - Draw a box -- Make a circle in the box -- Draw an X Draw a line under the X -- Draw a V -- Sign your name at the bottom of the page. -- Turn your paper over and sign the date in the upper left hand corner.

Make a simple job application form and have students fill in answers after reading the instructions.

b. Locating Information

Getting information in pictures

Referring to story titles

Using the table of contents

Using alphabetical arrangement

Using a dictionary

c. Evaluate Information

Observing purposes for reading. What happens in the story? Finding out about characters. Reading for specific information. Reading for enjoyment. Is the story true? What is relevant and what is irrelevant in the story?

d. Interpretation

Discussion concerning story, "Hans Brinker, or the Silver Skates" by Mary Mapes Dodge.

The main idea of the story is about a poor Dutch boy who competes for the wonderful silver skates. This story has many subordinate details. The book contains lengthy accounts of the history and culture of the Dutch people. One digressive detail is the old legend of the boy holding his finger in the dike.

The plot of this story is complex. There is a main plot concerned with the restoring of Roff Brinker's memory and with finding both the lost money and the secret watch. There are secondary threads concerning the old doctor and his missing son.

The characters are exceptional. There are eight boys and girls. Each character is portrayed as petty, heroic, odious, courageous, etc.

A mythical aspect of the story concerns itself with the legend of the finger in the dike.

Comments concerning the story: It has too many long and unimportant details in the book. The story is exciting to children and adults as well.

Note the following:

WHO - Hans Brinker and friends

WHAT - Competition for skates

WHEN - In the wintertime, long ago

WHERE - Holland

WHY - To win the skates to get money for the family

e. Creative and Critical Reading may be developed by:

(1) Developing stories or story endings after a fragment of the story has been read.

(2) Interpreting the ideas in a story by reading a sequence of pictures.

(3) The teacher may ask questions that were not in the context of the story but could be answered if the reader really understood the story. The questions may be such as these: What season was it? What time of day was it? Were there any relatives living near?

(4) Many teachers have a discussion of important daily news items. This is an excellent beginning for organizing material, choosing main ideas, recognizing proper sequence, and checking comprehension.

(5) A teacher may wish to read stories to the class--and then give dittoed sheets with a few sentences about the story. The students are to put them in proper sequence.

C. Stage Three

Stage Three builds upon the basic reading attitudes and skills acquired during Stage Two and attempts to prepare adults to read comfortably and with understanding any material required in everyday living.

The sight vocabulary should be expanded to include the majority of words commonly used in personal correspondence, news items, notices, bulletins, and books written for popular distribution. The essential sight vocabulary varies from 1500 to 2500 words. The new words encountered should not be more than one in ten.

Training should continue to provide word-attack skills to enable adults to recognize independently any word in the adult's spoken vocabulary.

STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS:

Caution is needed in stressing the recognition of known words occurring in larger words. The emphasis must be on meani[illegible]

During Stage Three, structural elements such as the following may be reviewed through the use of known words:

Prefixes and Suffixes

Variant Endings

Syllabification

Compound Words

Contractions

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES

Teaching the meanings of prefixes and suffixes is very important. A review of some commonly used prefixes and suffixes should occur at this time:

Prefixes meaning not: dis, im, in, un, non

Other prefixes: trans, semi, fore, under, com, con

Suffixes: ist, ible, ern, ment, ness, able, ish, ive, ous, ize

Specific suffixes to be taught during Stage Three are less, ment, ful, ness, ly, tion, able, al, ical, age, ive, ish, ize, ie

VARIANT ENDINGS

Variant endings to be reviewed at this Stage include: ly, y, er, est, less, ed, s, ing, en

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A convenient way to concentrate attention of the prefixes and suffixes is by the use of word wheels. The Webster wheels give practice with eleven common prefixes on twenty wheels. The a wheels are easier vocabulary than the b wheels. The eighteen suffix wheels present the eighteen commonest endings.

The upper wheel shows a prefix or a suffix which fits the word parts of the lower wheel. The lower wheel has the word parts which appear through the slot in the upper wheel. The wheel is in "Word Perception Skills; Structural Analysis" p. 153.

WORDS CONTAINING PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES:

refreshment	intending	expression
resentful	ungrateful	excitement
unlikely	disgraceful	delightful
confusing	producing	preferred
repainted	describes	exactly
commonly	commander	convention
exception	protesting	conductor

SYLLABICATION

To understand syllabication one must first know the vowel and consonant sounds and blending. Syllabication must be heard before it can be understood. Adults must be helped to know that some words like pretty, big, or funny can be used comparatively as in pretty, prettier, prettiest; but other words such as beautiful, huge, or peculiar would never have such endings.

Students should understand that a syllable is a vowel or a group of letters containing a vowel sound that forms a pronounceable unit. The vowel sound may consist of two vowels making only a single sound.

CLUES FOR SYLLABICATION:

Think how many syllables does a word have? A word has as many syllables as it has vowel situations. For example, he sees the e and o in (de v e l o p) to decide that it has three syllables. He also learns syllabic l, m, n, r, and y, as in nick (el), freed (om), butt (on), rubb (er), and carr (y). When deciding how many syllables an unknown word may have, the reader also looks for the ed ending. He must observe that ed adds an extra syllable when the root word ends in d or t, as in banded and hunted. In other words such as begged, cooked, sailed, the ed does not add an extra syllable.

Think: Which syllable is accented?

This step is omitted until the reader has mastered the first two steps and learned to identify common root words, inflectional endings, prefixes, and suffixes.

First the pupil learns that many two and three syllable words are accented on the first syllable, as in (fath) er, (happ) en, (gent) le, (luck) y, (fish) ing

His previous experience with syllabic r, l, m, n, r, y--with inflectional endings (i.g., ing); and with suffixes (e.g. en in golden and less in restless) gives him a feeling for the unaccented second syllable.

Think: What vowel rule will help you with the first syllable?

In accented first syllables of unknown words, a vowel rule may be applied. For example, the single vowel (short) rule may be applied to (sadd) le, (emp) eror, (blizz) ard.

Vowel rules may be applied to other accented syllables, as in the second syllable of in (vent), ex (plain), be (side).

Webster gives the following guide to aid the pupil in interpreting multisyllabic words: From Webster Word Analysis Chart, TEACHER'S GUIDE FOR REMEDIAL READING - Page 158

1. Look for "put together" or compound words
   horseshoe cowboy fishhook

2. Look for prefixes and suffixes
   refreshing unlikely notion

3. If you don't have it yet
   a. Count the vowel sounds
      public veto maintain escape
      1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 X

3. b. Cut into syllables vc/cv v/cv

pub	lic	ve	to	main	tain	es	cape	
vc	cv	v	cv	v c	cv	vc	cv	x
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	

c. Sound the syllables as you sound one syllable words
pŭb lĭc vē tō māĭn tāĭn ĕs cāpe

d. Say the word

PHONICS IN STAGE THREE

The teacher will review the use of initial consonants and emphasize digraphs and consonant blends.

Students should learn that longer words require greater phonetic attack skills. Digraphs and blends help in pronunciation. Adults need to learn to follow from left to right through the word with the consonant, digraphs, and blends as clues along with contextual clues. The meaning association and sounds usually provide the needed help in unlocking unfamiliar words.

Consonant sounds having more than one sound are presented here in order for adults to be alert to the many variables that may appear in reading.

The letter c is repeatedly classified with sound k. Occasionally, when followed by e, i, or y, it makes the sound of s as in rice, bicycle, cider, cyclone, cell. When it is followed by h it becomes a digraph as in church, chair, which.

The letter d is usually associated with sounds found in dog, dish, and do. In such words as soldier, gradual, and individual, it makes the sound of j.

The letter g is frequently heard as in go, good. Oftentimes it makes the sound of j in gypsy and gymnasium. In rouge it makes the sound of zh.

The letter q is often heard as in quiet and queen in which it sounds like kw. In antique it has only the k sound.

The ordinary sound of s appears in such words as so, sat, soon. However, it makes the sound of z in his and in many plurals formed by adding es to words such as boxes, and wishes. It makes the sound of sh in sugar and sure. It makes the sound of zh in decision and treasure. When it is followed by h it becomes a digraph, as in shall and ship.

The customary sound of t appears in such words as take, too, test. However, with an h following it, it becomes a digraph in such words as this, that, and throw. In the combination of letters tion, it becomes a dipthong in such words as attention and mention.

The most frequent sound of x is ks, as in box and extra. In examination, exalt, and exempt it makes the sound of gz.

The schwa is an unaccented vowel sound that is so influenced by the consonant following it that it can scarcely be discerned.

NG is called a nasal digraph. The air moves through the nose as ing, ong, and ung as one pronounces words including them.

CONSONANTS, DIGRAPHS, AND BLENDS are the most useful elements of phonics. However, for further work in the teaching of phonetic elements, COMMON VOWEL PHONOGRAMS are given:

Phonogram[10]	Example	Symbol
ar	b(ar)bed	/är, ár/ (sound of the name of the letter r)
ear	sp(ear)	/ir/ (ear)
air	f(air)	/ar, er/ (air)
or (stressed)	t(or)ch	/ȏr/ (or)
ore (stressed)	st(ore)	/ŏr ȏr/
oor (stressed)	d(oor)	/ŏr ȏr/
er (stressed)	h(er)self	/ər/
ir (stressed)	b(ir)d	/ər/
ur (stressed)	c(ur)tain	/ər/
ou	h(ou)nd	/aū/
ow	cr(ow)n	/aŭ/
ow (stressed)	kn(ow)	/ō/
ow (unstressed last syllable)	shad(ow)	/ŏ/
oi	app(oi)nt	/ói/
oy	destr(oy)	/ói/
au	c(au)se	/ó/
aw	j(aw)s	/ó/
a (before l)	st(a)ll	/ó/
u (stressed)	(u)mpire	/ə/ (short u)
a (unstressed)	(a)bout	/ə/ (short u)
ay	dism(ay)	/ā/ (long a)
y (last syllable)	fort(y)	/ē/ (long e)
syllabic l (unstressed)	gigg(le)	/-l/
syllabic m (unstressed)	rhyth(m)	/-m/
syllabic n (unstressed)	drag(on)	/-n/
syllabic r (unstressed)	fev(er)	/-r/
	col(or)	
	coll(ar)	

[10] Betts, Emmett A., "Controversial Issues in Reading," April, 1961

TRIPLE BLENDS may be introduced at this stage. Some words containing triple blends are as follows:

spr	spl	str	squ	scr
sprawl	splash	straddle	squab	screw
sprain	split	strand	square	script
sprig	splendor	strange	squat	scroll
sprightly	splint	stretch	squid	screen
sprocket	splutter	stray	squirrel	scratch

Smith gives the following phonic principles which the student may need for reference:

Phonic Principles[(2)] Smith - p. 198

1. When a one-syllable word contains two vowels, one of which is the final e, the first vowel is usually long and the final e, is silent, as in pine, note.
2. When there is only one vowel in a word and that vowel does not come at the end of the word, the vowel is usually short, as in pin, not.
3. When two vowels come together in a one-syllable word, the first vowel is usually long and the second vowel is usually silent, as in boat, hail. (There are some exceptions, of course, such as bread.)
4. If y is the final letter in a one-syllable word, it is usually long, as in fly, cry; if it is the final letter in a two-syllable word, it is usually short, as in baby, happy.

5. The letter c has the soft sound when followed by e, i, or y, as in center, city, cypher; it has the long sound when followed by a, o, or u, as in cold, cage, cure.
6. The letter g has the soft sound when followed by e, i, and y, as in gentle, giant, gypsy.
7. Why ghy appears in a word, gh is silent.[11]

[11]Smith, Nila B., Reading Instruction for Today's Children, Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963, P. 198.

COMPREHENSION - STAGE THREE

The teacher at this stage will encourage the student to understand printed materials relating to things and ideas outside the range of familiar experience, for examples: new ways of doing things, new practices and procedures, descriptions of people--their concepts and ideals in one's own and other countries. The student should make use of new ideas in solving personal or group problems and perhaps in modifying one's ideas and behavior. He should begin to develop curiosity and an inquiring attitude that leads to the habit of reading for pleasure and information.

Tinker and McCullough lists the following possibilities:

Reading for Details or Facts

Read to find out

what discovery this character made.
what the character did.
what the surprise was.
what the character had to do.
answers to our questions (about Indian life).
how the character surprised his family.
what the character's experiences were.
what happened to the _____ in the pictures of the story.
how the unusual qualities of the character helped.
answers to questions on study-guide sheet.
items to fill in outline in later discussion.
what character did to have fun (help, etc.).
as many things as possible that one character told another to do.

Read to write a good fact question on the story.
Read to make up riddles to fit the characters.
Read to visualize the place.
Read to recall as many things as possible about the conversation.

Reading for Main Ideas

Read to find out

why the character called it _____ (a real Thanksgiving).
why it was a good title.
what connection this story has with the unit title.
what the problem in this story is.
the answer to the question the subtitle raises.
places in story that make it suitable for inclusion in unit.
what the character learned.

Read to summarize in one sentence what the character did to achieve his purpose.

Reading for Sequence or Organization

Read to find out

what happened in each of the parts of story.
the events in the order of their occurrence.
key events in order, and jot down phrases to remember sequence.
about life story of a _____.
what the character does to solve his problems, step by step; where the climax of the story comes.
steps in the process described in the story (harvesting a crop).
how the character became a hero.
how many stages there are in the life of a _____.
scenes and events and characters concerned, to dramatize story.

Reading for Inference

Read to find out

how the character's family felt about his surprise.
what the suthor is trying to say, make us thing, about _____.
why the character felt as he did.
why the story has made people laugh, etc. (a classic).

how the character changed.
how the character felt about his environment.
the moral to the story (Aesop).
why the strong were strong and why the weak were weak.
what quality in the character made for success.

Read to identify with the character and tell how you feel in his place.
Read to write a good question of opinion to ask others.

Reading to Classify

Read to find out
what kind of success the character had.
what kind of person the character was.
what is unusual about the character.
how the character is important to our own living (earthworm).
what was funny and how the author made you laugh (by exaggeration, understatement, inappropriate juxtaposition, etc.)
as many points of exaggeration as you can.
the most surprising things in the story.
what was good, what was bad about the character.
evidence that the story could have happened; could not have happened.

Read to classify the story material under three headings: note page, paragraph, key word, for quick reference to prove points in discussion.
Read to make questions related to subheadings of story.

Reading to Compare or Contrast

Read to find out
how the character acted differently from that in previous story.
whether your guesses about the story were right.
how the character changed.
how two stories are alike or different.
whether character lives up to standards set by class for _____ (sportsmanship, etc.).
how the holiday in the story differs from ours.
evidence that the story could or could not have happened.
how the character's problem is like one you had.

Reading to Evaluate

Read to decide (and be ready with reasons)
whether the goal was worth the sacrifice.
whether the story was true to life.
whether character was successful and why or why not.
why the character has been so long remembered (Johnny Appleseed).
whether you'd like the kind of work described in the story; why.

Reading to Determine Relevance

Read to decide (and tell why you think so)
whether this story answers the question: _____; reasons.
what bearing the nature of the country, the times, had on the story.

Reading to Give Oral Interpretation

Read to read aloud one page of the funny story, stressing humor.
one page of the sad story, stressing sadness.

Read to take dramatic parts in story and read aloud.

"The abler students contribute to the discussion of purposes for which to read the material silently. The teacher has them think ahead of time how they will read to achieve a particular purpose.

"Should you read rapidly or slowly for this purpose?

"What will you have to look for as you read? what ideas? what words?

"What will you have to do with the ideas (words) when you do find them?

"What will you have to do with the ideas in order to answer the purpose?"[12]
(End Quote)

RELATED SKILLS

Following Directions. Adults need practice in taking directions. Many directions are given orally, and the adult must remember all that is said until the task is finished. The directions should be simple and in proper sequence. Practice can begin by giving directions for work on a practice sheet on reading skills and on the part of a page in the textbook to study or to write answers. Incidental teaching can be done by directing adults in getting the materials to use in an activity or putting the materials away following an activity.

Vocabulary and technical terms. Students must be guided in pronouncing the words, fitting them in the proper context and attempting to understand their meanings.

Reading maps, tables, graphs. Map reading is a difficult process. The reading of maps requires the knowledge of scale and symbol as well as terms such as longitude, latitude, temperature, current, equator, and others. Charts, tables, and graphs are often taught as a part of arithmetic,

[12] Tinker, Miles A., and McCullough, Constance M., "Teaching Elementary Reading," Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York. 1962., P. 477-478-479.

but no graphic presentation is meaningful unless it is related to a particular problem.

Organizing what is read. Organizing information is dependent upon the particular task at hand. As the student learns to locate and evaluate information, he needs help in understanding that certain ideas belong together, the ability to select facts that are related, and to understand there is a sequence. The narrative type story is sufficient for organizing simple related facts.

VI.

Summary

VI. SUMMARY

The actual teaching of reading is a continuous process in which many devices are employed providing a wide variety of activities necessary for a successful adult reading experience.

The use that is made of commercially available instructional materials and the type of teacher-made materials to be prepared will be dependent upon the nature of the particular group of adults in the reading program.

There are certain common practices and terms that any reading teacher must understand in order to make use of the various teaching devices that are available.

Since reading is getting meaning from the printed page, it is helpful in teaching reading to think of two areas of concern--word recognition and comprehension. These two areas are interrelated while an individual is actually reading. For the teacher, however, these areas can be separated into specific skills for purposes of effective teaching.

A. Briefly, word recognition is that part of the reading process in which printed symbols without meaning are translated into words that are meaningful and serve to convey ideas. Word recognition includes mastery of a group of sight words, the use of context or meaning clues, and the ability to analyze words.

B. Comprehension is the object of reading. Desirably, an adult's reading comprehension should be equivalent to his listening comprehension. Specific comprehension skills include: recognition and retaining main ideas, following directions, and anticipating outcomes.

BASIC PRINCIPLES INHERENT IN THIS READING GUIDE ARE:

Reading is a complex process.
Reading necessitates bringing experience into the printed page.
Efficient reading requires the development of specific skills.
Reading skills should be acquired functionally.
Reading is a unique process with each individual.
Diagnosis precedes instruction.
Learning to read is a continuous process.
Reading lessons should be fully planned.
Comprehension exercises should be presented in a logical sequence.
Workbooks should be used judiciously.
Love of reading is the result of a good developmental program.

VII.
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